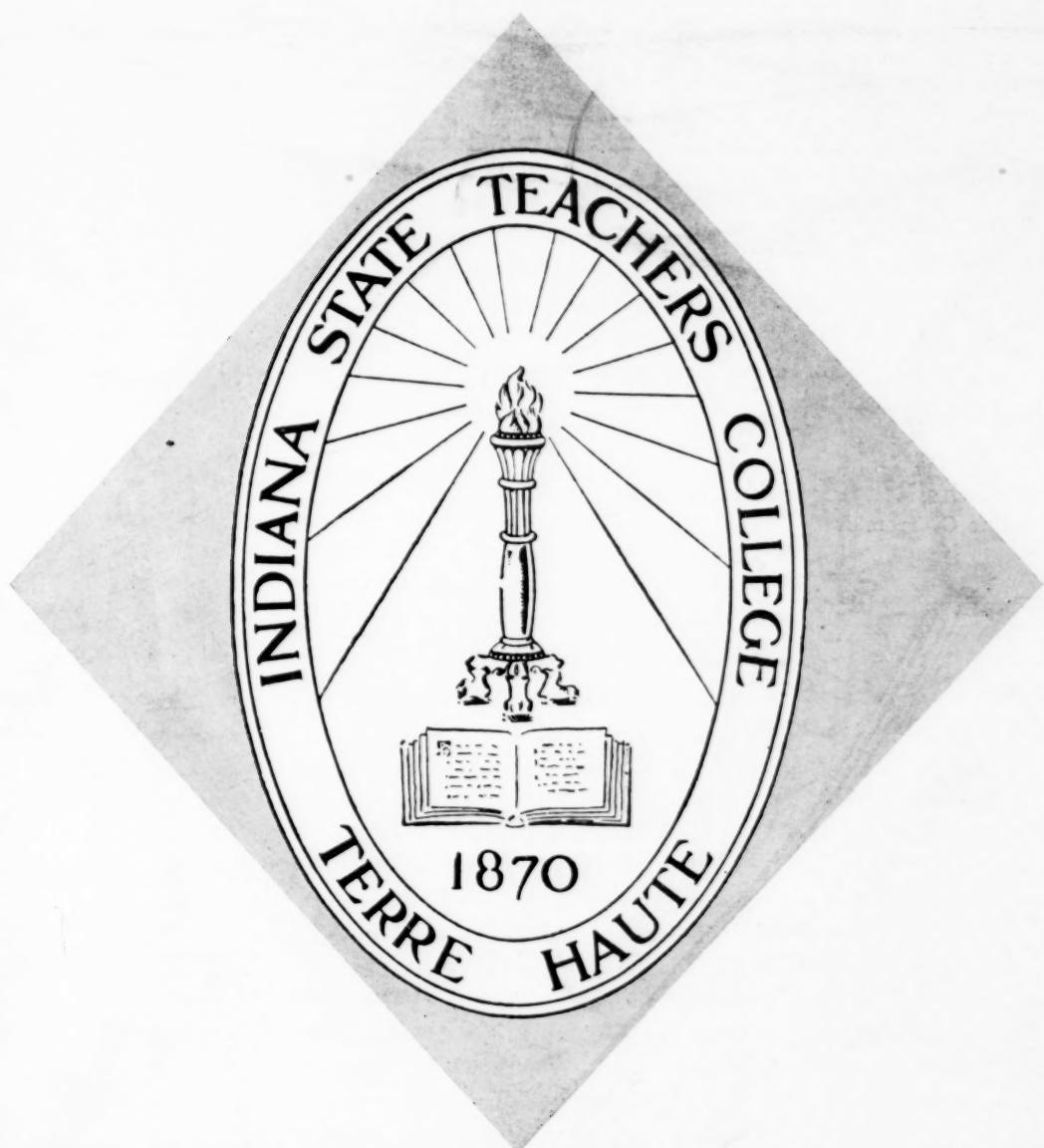


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Primary Goals for Teacher Education

A democratic social order demands of its members constant adaptability to a continuum of change, for each individual personality is modified with each experience he meets, and in turn helps develop new situations requiring mutual interaction. Alert citizens of a society are those who think with facts, who analyze and interpret problems upon sound bases of unbiased information, and who put into practice the solutions which their reason dictates.

Long years ago, the founding fathers charged this democracy with the responsibility of public education to insure an informed constituency which would then be able to actualize original basic governmental philosophies, and implement them toward the alleviation of changing social needs. The accepted goals of education include social awareness, critical thinking, and civic competency. None of these are simple goals, for all include within them contributory aims without which the major end cannot be realized.

Social awareness demands a fund of content information as well as an understanding of the physical and social forces which shape events into a current mold; fact must be the essence of interpretation. The progress of scientific developments must be integrated with the knowledge of improved skill in human relationships, if a true concept of social lag and its effects is to be reached. Paramount to

social awareness is a knowledge of social fact, preliminary to a definition of social problems which must necessarily precede tentative hypotheses directed toward solution.

Critical thinking requires an able use of the receptive skills of communication. The ability to listen carefully, and to understand accurately what is

The Teachers College Journal seeks to present competent discussions of professional problems in education, and toward this end restricts its contributing personnel to those of training and experience in the field. The Journal does not engage in re-publication practice, in the belief that previously published material, however creditable, has already been made available to the professional public through its original publication.

Manuscripts concerned with controversial issues are welcomed, with the express understanding that all such issues are published without editorial bias or discrimination.

Articles are presented on the authority of their writers, and do not necessarily commit the Journal to points of view so expressed. At all times, the Journal reserves the right to refuse publication if in the opinion of the Editorial Board an author has violated standards of professional ethics or journalistic presentation.

heard and what is read, is a basic demand prerequisite to the sound interpretation and evaluation of the mass of propaganda which floods modern living. The selective skills of organization, the ability to recognize inconsistencies and irrelevancies, and the ability to classify detail are prime necessities to a true reception of content which is transmitted by the spoken or written word. Logical reasoning and systematic judgments can proceed only from accurate reception and comprehension of basic factual content.

Civic competency develops from the first two goals, and is in part dependent upon them. It requires social awareness and critical thinking, but

it requires also a basis of techniques and attitudes which makes possible satisfactory personal adjustment to other individuals and to the community, and ultimately proceeds to positive contributions to social progress. Fundamental to such competency are the mastery of such academic skills and vocational education as are of social functional value. But far more important, civic competency demands self-knowledge and desire for self-improvement for personal competency, for only to the degree to which the individual capacities of each are developed and applied can the welfare of the group be improved.

Teachers are both the subject and object of the educational process. As mature citizens in a community they represent the successes and failures of a previous educational era in reaching its goals; as teachers in the classroom they seek to develop the skills and habits and attitudes which will make it possible for the children of this decade to become the competent citizenry of the next.

The responsibility of teacher education is, therefore, two-fold: it must recognize and fulfill the needs of prospective teachers for competent living as adult members of a community, for the truly successful teacher is first of all a well-informed, emotionally poised, and socially competent citizen, who has also learned to understand and enjoy children; and it must provide the specific professional education which will prepare these future teachers to guide and stimulate America's youth to meet successfully the continuing challenge of present and future social change.

This issue of the JOURNAL reports the University of Chicago Teacher-Education Conference, 1945, to be concluded in the July JOURNAL.

Implications of Functional Type Curricula for Teacher Training

Horace T. Morse

Director of the General College
University of Minnesota

General education for prospective teachers is a critical phase of curricular planning, for it shapes the cultural and civic understandings of future teachers as citizens. Dr. Morse has contributed significantly to this area of teacher-education, both in his administrative capacity and in reported research. Among his most recent reports are "The Education of War Workers and Returned Service Personnel," a chapter in the FORTY-FOURTH YEARBOOK of the National Society for the Study of Education, which is just off the press; and "Providing for Individual Differences in Teaching Study Skills," in the FIFTEENTH YEARBOOK of the National Council for the Social Studies, published in 1944.

There is probably rather general agreement that prospective teachers need to integrate three types of preparation for maximum teaching efficiency. The first of these is in the subject matter to be taught. There is no question but that sound and comprehensive preparation in the subject matter itself is a prime requisite for the successful teaching of that material to others. There is no substitute for this kind of training. A second type of preparation is in professional courses. These deal with various aspects of teaching with which the prospective teacher should be familiar, and capitalize upon educational experimentation and experience.



There is a third aspect which has been rather largely neglected until recent years. With the increasing complexity of living in modern society, the trend toward specialization and the attendant fragmentation of knowledge, the educational pattern has lost all semblance of unity. For some time educators have been concerned over this problem, and a number of significant proposals have been made and experiments tried in the attempt to determine what essential knowledge, understandings, abilities, insights, and appreciations should be common to educated adults in modern democratic society. These common learnings have been designated by the term *general education*.

In spite of a lack of agreement on the most effective approach to general education, there is more general agreement as to its objectives. "General education should help the individual to gain an awareness and understanding of problems of contemporary living, the cultural, social, and technological heritage of his age, and to develop the ability to think critically, to weigh basic human values, and to appreciate the products of creative thought and expression. It should prepare him for effective participation in democratic society and at the same time stimulate and allow full scope to his individual interests and talents."¹ The teacher, as a professional educator, has a particular obligation to exemplify the principles of a broad

and comprehensive general education.

There have been various approaches to meet this problem of broadening one's preparation for teaching. In the traditional Liberal Arts College breadth has been attempted by enforcing group requirements for those who would go into upper divisions of professional schools. These group requirements usually embraced the natural sciences, the social sciences, English, and foreign language, and in a sense assured a measure of broad training.

There was increasing dissatisfaction evidenced, however, because the introductory courses in these subjects were rarely suitable to the real objectives of general education. Therefore, new types of courses have been designed and are in operation in many institutions today. These general education courses usually are concerned with a broad overview of a subject matter field, and stress the relationships within an area and also the inter-relationship of various fields of knowledge. The fundamental purpose of such courses is not to provide study introductory to more specialized work at a later time, but rather to give a comprehensive and meaningful orientation to a field of knowledge in the sense of broadening the student's horizon and stimulating continuing interests.

Though there is naturally great variation in courses set up for the primary purpose of developing the values of general education, there are by and large two divergent points of view which determine the principle of organization. The first is predicated on the assumption that since the present is a product of the past, an understanding and appreciation of the cultural heritage and the contributions of the world's great thinkers will best equip the student to take his place in modern society. The curriculum is therefore organized in terms of broad areas of subject matter, usually embracing some such divisions as the social sciences, the natural sciences and mathematics, and the humanities. An extreme example of this point of view prevails in those curriculums,

¹Bulletin of University of Minnesota, Vol. XLVII, No. 28, July 19, 1944, p. 8.

such as at St. John's College, which are based upon the "hundred best books." More representative are the programs of The College of the University of Chicago and the proposals made by the committee which drew up the Harvard report.²

The second point of view is predicated on the assumption that since there will be certain common activities which young people will share as workers, citizens, and members of home and family groups, as well as certain knowledge, insights, and abilities they will need as individuals, it should be the task of the school to prepare them for these activities and supply them with desirable learnings so that they may become effective members of democratic society. This type of program, centered on needs and interests, is sometimes referred to as a "functional" curriculum.

This kind of program has been worked out for Stevens College, for example, and the recent publication, *A Design for General Education for the Armed Forces*, follows this basis of organization.³ This fundamental philosophy also underlies the curriculum of the General College of the University of Minnesota.

It might be pointed out in passing that the General College was set up to provide a two-year terminal general education program and that its function in teacher training is purely incidental. About one out of five students attending the College transfer to the four-year colleges of the University, and of these a fairly large proportion to the College of Education to prepare for teaching.

It is one thing to organize a program around the assumed needs of students and of adults in modern society; it is quite something else to make a scientific study of these needs and interests as a basis for curricu-

² *General Education in a Free Society*. Report of the Harvard Committee. Cambridge, Mass. Harvard University Press, 1945.

³ American Council on Education. *A Design for General Education for the Armed Forces*, Washington, D.C., 1944.

lum building. For the General College, extensive research projects were undertaken to determine these basic needs and interests. These were referred to as the Adult Study and the Adolescent Study.⁴ The purpose of the first was to determine the basic interests, attitudes, and activities of young people who had at one time or another attended the University of Minnesota; the purpose of the second was to determine the basic needs and interests of the students enrolled in the General College, who were in many ways typical college freshmen and sophomores.

As a result of these intensive studies, the curriculum of the college was reorganized in 1938 and was set up in terms of broad areas, four of which were called Orientation areas and dealt with those human activities which were identifiable as group needs of young people; five others in terms of subject matter areas, a knowledge of at least some of which was highly desirable for effective participation in modern society. The point of reference, however, even in the subject matter areas, was consistently the individual student, his adjustment to current and future needs.

The vocational orientation area considers common problems in the choice of an occupation, as a group exploratory project, followed up by individual investigation of job opportunities and requirements. The student also gathers information about personal attributes desirable for success in certain types of occupations, and considers his own qualifications on the basis of measured interests. Thus, through group study and individual counseling, the student may be enabled to make an intelligible and realistic occupational choice.

The social-civic area deals with social relationships. Some of the courses in the area are organized in terms of problems of modern society, and

⁴ Pace, C. Robert, *They Went to College*, Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press, 1941. Williams, Cornelia, *These We Teach*, Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press, 1943.

others follow the logical organization of a particular subject, such as history or economics. The purpose common to all the courses is the providing of information, understandings, abilities and attitudes basic to effective participation in the civic responsibilities of democratic society.

The home life orientation area provides systematic study of the factors which make for successful adjustment to home and family relationships, together with an understanding of problems and considerations in budgeting income, wise consumer practices, and practical aspects of child care and training. The individual orientation area stimulates consideration of values in higher education, opportunities at the University for social as well as intellectual development, and stimulates the student to seek a consistently unified pattern of development according to his individual needs and interests. The idea underlying this area, in short, is to assist the student to formulate an intelligent and worthwhile philosophy of life.

Anyone familiar with trends in general and experimental education will note that this principle of organization of learning into "functional" areas has been recommended or tried at various times elsewhere. There is a rather striking similarity between the orientation areas of the General College and those recommended for the secondary schools by the Educational Policies Commission. The Commission proposed that the schools should organize their objectives in the areas of (1) Self-realization, (2) Human relationships, (3) Economic efficiency, (4) Civic responsibility.⁵

In addition to the orientation areas, the General College maintains a program of five subject matter areas which draw their material from those aspects of the physical environment or cultural heritage with which educated persons should be familiar.

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⁵ Educational Policies Commission, *The Purposes of Education in American Democracy*, Washington, D.C., 1938.

Area Curricula In the Education of Teachers

J. Martin Klotsche

Dean of Instruction
Milwaukee State Teachers College

Dr. Klotsche received his Ph.D. degree from the University of Wisconsin, after having done earlier graduate study at the University of Nebraska. He is active in educational and social studies associations, and has contributed publications to professional magazines devoted to his interests, among which are the WISCONSIN MAGAZINE OF HISTORY, MISSISSIPPI VALLEY HISTORICAL REVIEW, and SCHOOL AND SOCIETY.

Whether we deplore the fact or whether we rejoice in it, teachers colleges will be under increasing pressure in the coming months to admit persons who do not intend to become teachers. In large part this is due to the not unexpected increase in college enrollments that has come with the end of the war. Actually we may experience in the next few years the same boom in higher education that we witnessed on the secondary level twenty-five years ago. The liberal educational opportunities offered to the G. I.'s plus the growing realization on their part that their future professional advancement will depend in large measure upon their educational training will aid in stimulating a substantial increase in enrollments in institutions of higher learning — an increase which teachers colleges are certain to share. So we can be reasonably certain that in the years in which a person receives a



general education — normally the first two years of college education — an increasingly large number of persons will be enrolling who will be interested in professions other than that of teaching. This trend is certain to persist unless, of course, a particular teachers college should put itself on record as favoring the admission of only those persons who definitely intend to teach.

There is much to be said for the notion that one should not discourage persons from entering a teachers college even if they have not yet made a professional commitment in favor of teaching. For not only are a large group of persons in every freshman class uncertain as to their professional future but many such persons with proper guidance and counselling have in actual practice made excellent teachers. Had they been discouraged from entering a teachers college in the first place, the profession would have been deprived of their valuable services. There should be, then, a careful program of guidance to determine those people who are best qualified to become teachers.

Yet, there is an even broader question that must be considered when we discuss general education in relation to the training of teachers. That question is whether there really should be any difference between general education for teachers and general education for other persons. There is a growing realization in many professional schools that while specialization is absolutely essential, that a

broad background in certain basic fields of understanding is quite as important. In fact, the recent report of the Society for the Promotion of Engineering Education recognizes the limitations of an exclusively technical education and suggests that greater attention be given in the education of future engineers to a number of subjects which are not directly related to the profession of engineering. Now the need for such a general education would seem to be even greater in the profession of teaching for in the final analysis the teacher is more than a classroom personality; he or she is also (or should be) an active participant in the life of the community. Hence, general education should help to make a prospective teacher a well integrated part of the community in which he or she is likely to live as well as to give him or her the intellectual equipment to become a well qualified and successful teacher. M. E. Haggerty in "The Academic Phase of the Curriculum" has this to say: "Society has a right to expect a teacher to be if not the best, at least a dependable representative of modern culture in the community in which he works and lives."

Some difficulties that are encountered in setting up a program of general education for teachers especially if such a program does not follow the more traditional lines are these:

1. There is the problem of transfer of credits to another institution. Often heavy penalties are attached to an experimental program of general education especially when a person transfers such a course to another institution where a more traditional program of general education has been in operation.

2. Too many teachers still have too departmentalized a view about general education. Their own training has often been specialized and they are inclined to conceive of education as designed to train specialists rather than as a means by which people can gain a better understanding of certain

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Problems of Accrediting in Teacher Education Area Curricula

J. Monroe Hughes

Dean of the School of Education
Northwestern University

In September, 1945, the School of Education of Northwestern University put into effect a new four-year program for under-graduates preparing to teach in elementary and secondary schools. The plan was the culmination of co-operative organization with the College of Liberal Arts, and proposes a practical integration of liberal education, professional education, and content education in subject matter teaching fields.

Dr. Hughes has prepared a detailed account of the objectives and administration of the new plan, how some of the problems have been met, and revisions which now appear to be desirable.

Dean Hughes completed his graduate study at Columbia University and the University of Minnesota. He has published widely in the fields of administration and supervision in teacher-education.

Those of us who are concerned with teacher education in universities are impressed by the pronounced tendency for such institutions to organize their programs around "areas." The trend is not new. In fact, the findings of the *National Survey of the Education of Teachers* issued in 1933, clearly point to the need for some such type of organization. To quote from that study:

"Curricula for teachers should be largely prescribed, the prescriptions differing in terms of the different



positions for which the teachers are preparing."

If it is accepted that a teacher education program should be prescribed, then it must be granted that the less segmentation in the program the better, because segmentation can lead to large scale omissions and to many repetitions. The *Survey* further pointed out that "only about one-third of the teachers from teachers colleges, colleges, and universities in 1931-32, had had work in fine arts, either in high school or in college," and that this is an area "in which teachers need to be well informed" — one "destined to become increasingly important in the creative use of leisure time for increasing numbers of persons." Fine arts was only one of the flagrant omissions characteristic of many segmented programs.

Literature on teacher education in universities, issued since the *National Survey*, is emphatic in advocating that curriculums be organized around areas of study, each area encompassing related knowledges and understandings in broad, general fields.

The reasons for adopting area organization are manifold. A quotation from the *Harvard Committee Report* (p. 54) indicates some of these reasons and suggests what is meant by an "area" in a teacher preparation program:

"Our conclusion, then, is that the aim of education should be to prepare an individual to become an expert both in some particular vocation or art and in the gentle art of the free man and the citizen. Thus the two kinds of education

once given separately to different social classes must be given to all alike."

Thus the report stresses the need for two kinds of training — one leading to specialization in education and the other leading to the building of value judgments. The *Report* divides liberalism in education, or that phase of education which is devoted to building value judgments, into three areas — the humanities, the social sciences, and mathematics and science. Lines of reasoning similar to those advanced by the *Harvard Report* were followed in developing the well-known B.A. program of the College of Liberal Arts at Northwestern which preceded the *Harvard Report* and which was inaugurated in the fall of 1944. It made possible the teacher education program in the School of Education which was commenced in the fall of 1945.

Major factors which are influencing universities to adopt the area curriculum pattern include: one, a growing realization of a need for students at all levels to have continuing association with those areas in which value judgments are of prime importance; two, an awakening to the fact that, if all American citizens are to receive training in these value-judgment areas, at least 80 per cent must receive such instruction in elementary and secondary schools. This instruction can be adequately given only by teachers whose training at the higher level can include study in value-judgment fields; and three, the recognition that a four-year curriculum cannot be either complete or unified within the framework of the old course-credit system. Or, to state this last differently, an appreciation of the fact that a four year planned area curriculum is much superior to a segmented one made up of an accumulation of 180 course-hours of credit.

Reasons for moving in the direction of area organization may seem obvious and since, as has been pointed out, eminent scholars have been advocating such a plan for many years, one may question the tardiness with which this type of organization has

been developed. There are, of course, many obstacles to any fundamental change away from the curriculum built on the traditional course-credit plan. Many of these are technical and involve practical problems which are local and which can be solved by careful application. The fact, for instance, that the area organization is more expensive is a deterrent to its widespread rapid acceptance. This is particularly true when the plan includes, as it does at Northwestern, assigning teaching in many of the units to a group of professors who represent various interests and specialties and who work co-operatively. Another, and very serious, impediment to rapid progress toward area organization is involved in the problem of meeting state teaching requirements.

It is the rightful prerogative of each state department of education to determine the standards of training it expects from its teachers, and justly so. It is an important function which the state should not relinquish. However, since state legislatures, or state departments of education, must ultimately pass upon these teaching requirements, they frequently lag somewhat behind the best thinking of specialists in the educational field. The lag is partly due, also, of course, to the fact that when the need for change is accepted the process for effecting the change is slow and involved.

State departments of education commonly specify their teacher training requirements in terms of courses and credits. This, to begin with, presents a difficulty when one attempts to interpolate an area program, which is defined in units and blocks of time, and which strives toward the acquisition of skills and understandings, and the building of many competencies, into a pattern foreign to its organization. The translation, however, cannot be avoided. A start is made when one remembers that universities and state certifying bodies are both striving toward the same end, both want the best training available for

the teachers of children in the elementary and secondary schools. It is possible for both groups to meet on common ground, to work co-operatively in developing a teacher education program, and to agree on common criteria for judging it.

Adoption of the new teacher education program at Northwestern was preceded by careful study and planning on the part of the faculty. As the plan progressed, the State Department of Education co-operated actively in this planning and advised concerning details which would result in a program consistent with state standards. Since there is no discrepancy between the aims of the State Department of Education and the School of Education, it was not difficult to agree on a program for the training of teachers which is unified and complete and which, at the same time, meets the state teaching requirements.

The entire four-year undergraduate teacher education program is organized into sixteen blocks or units, each with a definite need to fulfill. If one accepts the assumptions basic to each of the units, then the validity of the organization is sound. The seven units in liberal education, offered in the College of Liberal Arts as integrated units, are organized to fulfill needs common to all students. These stress the achievement of value-judgment. For example, it is assumed that all well-educated men and women should be acquainted with the principle systems of thought that have been devised to unify and explain the world of ideas and the actions of men, and with the satisfactions to be obtained from an appreciation of music and the graphic and plastic arts. A unit — Unit Nine — which is one-fourth of the junior year and which is devoted to philosophical ideas and to works of art, is designated as the block of time which should wholly be devoted to a realization of this assumption.

Five units in the program provide for specialization. These are made up of individual courses of the type followed in the old programs and vary

with the student's professional objective.

The remaining four units in the program are devoted to a professional sequence and are included in all the programs of teachers in preparation. The professional sequence begins in the freshman year with an integrated unit called "An Introduction to Personal and Professional Development." In the sophomore year, a year's block of study is built around Education in American Life and includes History of American Life and Government; Education in American Life and Sociological Backgrounds to American Education. The professional sequence in the junior year emphasizes the educative process and in the senior year it provides opportunity to apply educational knowledge and understandings through study and experience in actual public school classroom situations.

It is very practical and challenging for a University to work in close co-operation with the local state education department in developing a new teacher education program which will, among other things, satisfy the standards desired by the state. However, this does not solve all of the problems. No university, for instance, is local. Even state universities are national institutions since they train students for professional service in all states. Teachers, therefore, eminently prepared to meet teaching requirements in one state, may not meet the requirements of other states. This presents a serious problem. Often differences in state requirements are minor and involve such small items as one semester hour of credit more for teaching in a particular subject-field in one state than in another. Under the old course-credit system selection of courses might be juggled to satisfy this type of requirement. Under the area organization, however, no such juggling is possible. Further, the blocks of study cannot be organized to meet all the maximums in every state.

Inasmuch as the state departments of education and teacher training

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from War to College Campus

J. Erle Grinnell

Chief, Liberal Arts Section
Biarritz American University
Biarritz, France

The accompanying article was written for the JOURNAL while Dr. Grinnell was in France, in the GI University at Biarritz. It is a fit accompaniment to the civilian conference on teacher-education, for Dean Grinnell presents a stimulating description of the spirit of the veteran who returns to participate in teacher — or general — education.

Since this manuscript was prepared, Chief Grinnell has himself returned to civilian status, and has resumed actively his position as Dean of Instruction of Indiana State Teachers College.

I stood in a light drizzle halfway down the line of G.I.'s outside the Lutetia Theatre. The crowd from the first show poured out and flowed down the little French street.

"Is it worth waiting for?" asked a lad in front of me. "No — not after a show like last night's," answered an anonymous figure swathed in a slicker.

Tonight's show was a swift moving, sophisticated murder mystery; last night's was "Our Vines Have Tender Grapes." And therein lies a tale, as the romancer would say, a tale of truth and a gross error.

The truth is that servicemen like the forthright and the sincere. I saw "Our Vines Have Tender Grapes" with them here in France at Biarritz American University and I know how much it moved them. Over and over I have rejoiced in their quick, sure appreciation of the genuine were it ever so simple and of the beautiful were it ever so obscured.

May, 1946

American University several months ago — these uniformed students of a restive army awaiting redeployment. Many B.A.U. professors admitted that they had their fingers crossed. Soon they were enquiring at dinner tables if their exciting experience had been duplicated by their associates. Were others finding these G.I.'s so interested in the work and so appreciative that the professors had to work harder than they did back home? Were the boys hanging around after class to argue and to ask questions? Was the class likely to be having an informal panel when the professor got there?

Were their curriculum choices those of men who feared effort or avoided what back home are too often called "sissy" interests like art and literature? The first classes to be filled were in art and music. Philosophy was popular and psychology boomed. In hordes they tackled language. They showed little disposition to feel about for snap courses. They walked the streets the first evenings to work off nervous strain so they could go back to concentrate again. Unlike many freshmen I have known back home, when they found the disciplines of study were hard to regain, they didn't shrug their shoulders and go out to a tavern. They looked for someone to tell them how to do it or they buckled into the problem alone and experimentally. Among four thousand students there were few who did not accept the challenge and plow ahead as they had in combat.

What are the main characteristics of these G.I. college men of ours? I shall try to be brief. I can't promise to be dispassionate. It happens that I am fiercely proud of what they are and what they have proved here far from home at a University in one of the choice playgrounds of the world.

A popular supposition was that the G.I. released from duties in camp or city and sent to Biarritz to the university would make a long holiday of it. Such was far from the case. Those who elected to come revealed their

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The Contribution of the Speech Re-education Clinic to Teacher Preparation

F. Lincoln D. Holmes

*Head of the Department of Speech
Illinois State Normal University
Normal, Illinois*

The problem of speech correction for college students is a major concern in developing personal adequacy for future teachers. Mr. Holmes explains some of the procedures by which improvement is effected in the speech correction clinic conducted under his direction at Illinois State Normal.

Obviously, a Speech Re-education Clinic exists for the purpose of providing diagnostic and re-education services for persons with defective speech. Speech is classified as defective when it interferes with communication, attracts unfavorable attention to the speaker, or when it causes the speaker to become socially maladjusted.

Ideally, a Speech Re-education Clinic involves suitable quarters, a minimum of equipment, and a director qualified to diagnose defective speech, to plan a program of re-education, and to give speech re-education lessons to children, adolescents, and to adults.

The Speech Re-education Clinic at Illinois State Normal University was established to provide re-education services for children in our training schools and for our college students. During summers speech re-education services have been provided for children living in the general area.

In discussing the contribution of the Speech Re-education Clinic to teacher preparation four topics will be

developed: (1) Service for the student preparing to teach; (2) Services for pupils in training school and in affiliated schools; (3) Out-patient service; (4) The speech re-education clinic.

In 1935 the Faculty at Illinois State Normal University approved the introduction of a two-credit one semester course in Fundamentals of Speech to be required of all students in 4-year curricula. During the two semesters of 1935-36 and the first semester of 1936-37 limited Speech Re-education services were provided for college students. These cases were usually reported by classroom teachers or by other teachers serving as critics of student teaching. At the end of three semesters of experience with Fundamentals of Speech the four members of the Speech Staff agreed that satisfactory habits of voice and diction for many of the students enrolled in that course were not being achieved. After considerable exploration, the procedure of giving incompletes to these students and requiring each of them to report to a Speech Clinic Section, meeting one hour a week, was adopted. These students could be continued in these Clinic Sections two semesters, if necessary, without the incomplete becoming a failure. When the student mastered his problem sufficiently to satisfy our standards, he was referred to the teacher who had

reported him for a check-up. If his progress seemed adequate, he was excused. Under this procedure more than half of the students were excused from the Clinic Section by the end of their first semester. No one was judged to have made such poor progress that he was given a failure, although many students withdrawing from school received failures because they did not clear their incompletes. An attempt was made to place students with similar deviations in the same Clinic Sections. In many instances this procedure could not be followed because of the problem of programming.

During the school year of 1941-42 the faculty adopted a revised Core Curriculum program. This course re-organization changed Fundamentals of Speech from a two-credit to a three-credit course and moved it into the sophomore year. Previous to this change, the Department of Speech had recommended the giving of Speech Usage Tests to all new students with those in need of Speech Re-education Service being given that help before they were allowed to enroll in Fundamentals of Speech. When the change in Freshman year load was approved, the proposal to introduce Speech Usage Tests was submitted and approved. The freshmen and transfer students entering the college in September 1942 were required to take the Speech Usage Test. During registration these students were assigned specific times to report for their tests. The testing period was concentrated during the first two weeks of regular class meetings. Students reported to a preparation room where they filled out a Speech Usage Test Questionnaire providing some pertinent information about the student and his speech experience. He selected from among five topics one upon which he prepared a short talk of about two minutes in length, and prepared to read one of five paragraphs presented on a mimeographed sheet. When he was ready, he was sent to a classroom where a member of the Speech faculty talked with him and heard him speak and read. The

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teacher filled out a sheet or card on which was indicated his reactions to the student's phonatory and articulatory habits and general adjustment to the speaking and reading situation. If the student's speech was defective or sub-standard, he was told of his deviations and was asked to consult the bulletin board for his assignment to a Speech Clinic Section. If his speech indicated slight deviations which could readily be remedied in his subsequent course in Fundamentals of Speech he was informed of the deviations so that he might give some attention to them prior to taking his required speech course. The principal criterion for asking the student to report for a clinical assignment has been: *Would this student be handicapped by his speech deviation while taking Fundamentals of Speech?*

In 1942, twenty and eight-tenths per cent of the freshmen entering in September were judged to have deviations in speech sufficient to handicap them in *Fundamentals of Speech*. These students were classified into four major groups: (1) "s" deviations; (2) nasalized speech; (3) voice deviations resulting from a hypertense condition of the laryngeal musculature; and (4) a miscellaneous group made up of other substitutions and lack of variety. The Speech Clinic Sections were limited in size to ten or less. Three of the faculty were each responsible for working with two or more of these Clinic Sections. More than half of these students were excused from their Clinical Section assignments by the end of the semester. In 1943, about twenty-one per cent of the beginning freshmen were judged to need clinical help. The procedure in setting up the various sections was similar to that used in 1942 and a proportional number was excused by the end of the first semester.

In 1944, the proportion selected for clinical help dropped to slightly under sixteen per cent. From among those assigned in 1944, four have been continued in the clinic group of this year.

In 1945, about seventeen and seven-

One of the trends in education today is the increasing emphasis placed on the treatment of the handicapped child. The need for early diagnosis of difficulties and the development of educational procedures that meet the requirements of these children is commanding more and more attention. Increased appropriations of public funds attest to a growing public realization that facilities and trained personnel should be provided for those, who for some reason, are unable to make satisfactory progress in the usual school situation or who cannot do so without special aid.

The result has been a growing demand for trained teachers in a number of special fields such as sight-saving, speech re-education, education of the mentally deficient, remedial reading, and others. Placement officers report the demand for these specialists far exceeds the supply. In addition, there is great need for all teachers to be trained so they are sensitive to and appreciate the problems of the exceptional child. Every teacher should be able to recognize when the services of specialists are needed, should know what resources may be drawn upon when help is needed and what procedures may be safely attempted on the teacher's own responsibility. To meet this need a number of teacher colleges have been adjusting their curricula and experimenting with various types of clinics as agencies of teacher preparation. These clinics have been established to serve as centers where the services of trained specialists are provided for the handicapped and, at the same time, have been organized so that they furnish a training ground for teachers. Two such clinics are described in the accompanying articles, with special reference to the correlation with teacher training programs.

ROMEO M. ZULAU
Dean of Faculties

Northern Illinois State Teachers
College

tenths per cent of the entering freshmen were assigned for clinical help. With a total of seventy-seven assigned to Speech Clinic Sections this year, eight sections were set up to accommodate sixteen "s" cases, sixteen nasalized speech cases; thirty-five voice cases, and ten miscellaneous.

Some of these students will be excused within a few weeks. Some of the more extreme cases will continue to work on their problems throughout the second semester and it is likely that some will have to continue work into next year. If instruction in Clinic Sections is inadequate, arrangements will be made, as has been the case in the past, for individualized help. In fact, three of the cases for this semester require individualized help from the start.

One of the shortcomings of our Speech Re-education Clinic service is the lack of an adequate follow-up program. During the period in which the student is receiving clinical help on his speech there is competition between the old, unacceptable habits of voice production and pronunciation and the new acceptable habits. The student has to be motivated to retain whatever progress he has made for he must continue to check up on his own speech for a long time after lessons are discontinued. Sometimes the old habits get the better of the struggle and the new habits are displaced. As a means of maintaining continued attention to his speech, provision should be made for a check-up on the speech students while they are engaged in student teaching. If they need further help, arrangements should be made so that they may receive it.

The objective of the Speech Re-education Clinic for college students is acceptable speech. To achieve this goal procedures must be followed which discover the students in need of help, arrangements must be made for speech re-education lessons, and the student must be motivated to make an effort to retain acceptable habits of voice and diction. Some by-products of this Speech Clinic Service

seem to result. Apparently our students have learned to appreciate good speech and are more familiar with its characteristics. Also, students have learned of obstacles to educational progress, such as defective speech, and that special problems need special remedies. The establishment of a clinic of any kind to deal with a problem directs the attention of students to a scientific procedure. The existence of a Speech Re-education Clinic which works with college students on their speech calls attention to an elementary and secondary school problem and directs attention to a method of solving problems.

Another by-product should be a more objective attitude toward problems. This is a very desirable trait in a teacher. Clinical procedures acquaint students with problems and methods of solving the problems.

The provision of speech re-education services for children in training schools and in affiliated schools serves also to attract the attention of prospective teachers to problems which obstruct the educational process. By being exposed to the work of a Speech Re-education Clinic they learn that speech is a composite of habits which may be affected in their formation by structure, physical skill, sensory discrimination, the model copied, and the social adjustment of the person. They also learn that the deviations in speech arising from such causes can be ameliorated by speech rehabilitation procedures. The classroom teacher for the elementary school can learn through course requirements, such as one in Methods of Speech Re-education for Phonatory and Articulatory Deviations, which is required of all our students pursuing the Elementary Curriculum, and through observation of clinical procedures, her responsibility for the speech of her pupils either through helping them directly or referring them to a specially educated Speech Correctionist.

The Speech Re-education Clinic in dealing directly with speech deviations emphasizes child-centered edu-

cation. Consequently, in addition to its utility in removing obstacles from the educational process, the speech clinic directs that process into an acceptable path.

Teachers educated in a teachers college which emphasizes community service are better qualified to help any school approach its educational goal. The Speech Re-education Clinic contributes to community service by providing diagnostic services for children with defective speech from surrounding communities and outlining a re-education procedure to be applied by the parents or teacher or both. By this means the clinic helps teachers in service to fulfil educational objectives and to learn that speech problems are usually remedial. Also the Speech Clinic provides a link between the teacher in service, the teachers in training, and the teachers of teachers.

Part of our out-patient service has been given in diagnosing and giving speech lessons to children who have had lip and palate operations and to those who have cerebral palsy for the University of Illinois Division of Services for Crippled Children. This collaboration has given students an opportunity to see the more severe articulatory and phonatory deviations and it calls attention to means of overcoming severe obstacles to the educational process.

The quarters of the Speech Re-education Clinic should provide ample room for the reception of cases, rooms for diagnosis, audiometric testing, and practice rooms for individual work. Facilities for recording the speech of those receiving speech lessons should be available with suitable arrangements for filing recordings. The working area should be such that students can visit the clinic and observe all phases of its work. Since this clinic provides speech re-education services for children in the kindergarten and in the elementary grades, it should have an attractive playroom for children waiting for lessons and the practice rooms furnished for children should be attractively decorated.

At the best, working on a speech problem is tedious enough in itself; consequently, the clinic should be as attractive as possible. This will serve three purposes: children will not dislike coming to it for speech lessons; students will want to visit it frequently; the supervisor of speech re-education will be proud of his working area and will welcome visitors.

The minimum of equipment for a speech re-education clinic should include a diagnostic pure-tone audiometer, a recording machine, and auxiliary playback equipment. For certain types of voice and rhythm cases a polygraph for recording breathing movements would be helpful.

The director of the clinic has to be qualified as a diagnostician and as a planner of individual re-education programs. As has been stated earlier, he should be able to give speech lessons to anyone with defective speech. A sure way to check his qualifications is to check on the type of membership he holds in the American Speech Correction Association. Those who have qualified as Clinical or Professional members should have the qualifications for such services.

This discussion has been restricted to the use of the Speech Re-education Clinic in the preparation of the classroom teacher. In the education of the teacher of the exceptional child, the clinic is very helpful. In the education of Speech Correctionists, the Speech Re-education Clinic is indispensable.

Does the teacher-preparation institution need a Speech Re-education Clinic? Is good speech essential to a well-prepared teacher? Do any students who are preparing to be teachers have defective or substandard speech? Should teachers be taught to recognize problems interfering with educational procedures? Should teachers learn the most effective way of remedying problems which obstruct the educational process? If the answer to the above question is "Yes!", every teacher education institution needs a Speech Re-education Clinic.

The function of the Reading Clinic in Teacher Education

Bernardine G. Schmidt

Supervisor of Remedial Reading and Sight Conservation
Indiana State Teachers College

The improvement of basic skills and the development of critical and evaluative reading are contributions of a reading clinic to a self-improvement program for prospective teachers, which helps make more effective other phases of their general education. In addition, such a clinic trains teachers, clinicians, and supervisors in a situation which makes possible student observation, discussion, and supervised practice. The following article describes the way in which one reading clinic meets this dual function.

Miss Schmidt completed early graduate study at De Paul University, and received her Ph. D. from Northwestern. She is in charge of remedial reading, sight conservation, and psychological services in the Special Education Clinics of Indiana State.

A teacher education program serves a two-fold function: (1) the self-improvement of students in training; and (2) the professional training in the application of specific skills and techniques, and the acquisition of information. Each phase of such a program must be evaluated against its contribution to either or both of these functions.

The Reading Clinic in general education is charged with the duty of the improvement of reading skills to the point of comparability with the highest level of general ability of each student; the efficient discharge of this responsibility is nec-



essarily a contribution to the self-improvement function of either teacher- or general-education. Maximal reading skill increases the meaningful significance of the broad cultural background which makes up so large a part of a general, or liberal, education. In addition, improvement in basic skills of the comprehension of printed language frequently salvages for competency the college student of good mental ability but deficient reading achievement. From the self-improvement function, the Reading Clinic can be considered of value if it helps each student to read at a level of efficiency comparable to his mental ability so that he may obtain the fullest value from his formal college education, and yet have the leisure to participate in the social activities which balance collegiate living.

In teacher education, resources for observation and demonstration are a requisite part of a training program. The laboratory school should serve as a model of pupil personnel services, the administration of guidance procedures, and the use of such co-operating agencies as contribute to the best welfare of the children enrolled in the school. The contribution which a Reading Clinic can make to such training school facilities is another service which it offers to the training of teachers.

Probably the most obvious contribution is the specific training of teachers in the application of clinical techniques, and the diagnostic and remedial measures to be adapted to room and individual needs. The

Reading Clinic prepares classroom teachers to utilize group procedures, and to interpret specialized diagnoses and recommendations. Clinicians are trained for special remedial instruction in schools and clinics, and supervisors prepare to undertake the administration and supervision of reading in unit buildings, school systems, and in residential schools and institutions.

Finally, and least obvious but none the less important in the on-going process of the improvement of teaching and learning, is the research function of the clinical laboratory. From the child laboratory of the classroom should come the major contributions of experimental method and instructional materials, for such research has a direct transference practicability which that from the highly controlled psychological laboratory frequently misses. Students in preparation as future teachers need to know and apply the scientific method in the solution of problems, to be alert to critical issues in their profession, to be able to report completed research, and to understand how to interpret and apply the results of reported research. These functions can also be served in part at least by the Reading Clinic.

On a teachers college campus, therefore, the Reading Clinic serves these needs: (1) the improvement of reading of college students in training for teaching; (2) observable demonstration facilities for a laboratory school; (3) training of classroom teachers in the techniques of group remedial instruction; (4) preparation of clinicians, special supervisors, and administrative personnel; and (5) research facilities and training in their use for the investigation of problems in child development, and for the development of experimental instructional method and materials.

The respective emphases given to each of these functions depends upon the specific nature of the clinic, its personnel, and the local problems which need immediate attention at any one time. The several functions are correlative, however, rather than

exclusive. Each serves the other and all are interwoven into a pattern of reciprocity which would be materially weakened by any removal.

THE IMPROVEMENT OF READING FOR COLLEGE STUDENTS

At Indiana State Teachers College, the Reading Clinic began its program for the improvement of reading for college students in the fall of 1944, because of the many queries of faculty as to probable causes of inability of students of high mental ability to master content reading in academic course work. For several years prior to this date all entering students had taken the American Council Psychological Examination during Freshman Orientation Week; it was now decided to add to this program a regular administration of the *Iowa Silent Reading Test*, Advanced Form, so selected because in addition to its survey measures of reading achievement in relation to college normative standards, its results are easily translatable for diagnostic interpretation.

Upon a careful comparison of the results of the mental ability and reading examinations, students were selected for recommendation for remedial instruction on the basis of one (or more) of these basic criteria: (1) a deviation of the reading percentile rank of fifteen points or more below the psychological; (2) reading achievement level below that of eighth grade graduates; and (3) reading achievement level below that of third year high school students. These three classifications represented the instructional remedial groups in terms of seriousness of need. Students whose test results placed them in group one might be listed also in group two or three, since these groups were necessarily not mutually exclusive but overlapping.

The first experimental remedial class was organized in December, 1944, one month after the opening of the November Naval Term. The class was scheduled as a non-credit course, meeting the same number of hours as did credit classes. Enrollment in the course was required for all students

recommended by the Clinic for such instruction, if they were not registered in another class at that time. The class was to be administered on an individual progress basis, with provision for excuse of students from further attendance when reading achievement reached a satisfactory level.

With the first classes, enrollment was held to a maximum of twenty. The first week was devoted to a check of visual acuity and ocular fusion efficiency; records were also available of tests of hearing which had been made at college entrance. In addition, a second reading test (a second form of the Iowa), and a second group psychological test were administered, in order that errors of remedial selection due to inaccurate testing might be eliminated. Following the diagnostic week, remedial instruction was begun, consisting of three main types: (1) individual assignments of exercises in the specific kinds of reading deficiencies ascertained in the earlier diagnosis; (2) group instruction in the nature of the reading process, and in the general skills of rapid, meaningful reading; and (3) a free reading, or interest-reading program. In this third phase of the instructional plan, the students were given access to the personal library of the instructor, consisting of several hundred books of varying levels of difficulty, and equally diverse fields of interest, including classics, old-time favorites, recent popular fiction and non-fiction, and technical and professional selections. No reading requirement was made, but students were encouraged to select what they wished, and the library circulated volumes without a return time limit.

Monthly retests were made, and, in addition, at student request. Personal conferences with individual students were held at irregular intervals as needed, and frequently became an opportunity for personal counselling in areas other than reading problems alone.

At the conclusion of the course, individual case reports were filed with the Dean of Instruction, indicating

the specific nature of remedial instruction, calendar dates of attendance, number and length of instructional periods, results of instruction, and suggestions for further improvement. For all students so enrolled, a general recommendation was made that they return to the Clinics annually for retests, and re-enroll in the special instructional class, if their gains in reading achievement were not being maintained by the year following class dismissal.

The methods of evaluation of the first experimental class were continued for each of the succeeding classes which were organized each term: (1) improvement in reading as shown by improved test performance, and by maintenance of that improvement; (2) gains in scholarship index in terms following that of remedial instructional enrollment; (3) reduction of college withdrawals; and (4) comparison of results from the first three evaluations with similar data for paired students who were recommended for remedial instruction but who did not enroll. Of these, the second measure—change in scholarship index—was considered the most practical indication of the fruitfulness of the course, since it could be said to indicate functional reading efficiency in college classwork.

Many factors other than reading achievement enter into a college grade, but when changes in indices were compared between students of similar mental ability, similar original indices, and similar original need for remedial instruction, with the one difference that one student enrolled for such needed instruction while the other did not, the difference in scholarship progress can be tentatively suggested as being caused in part, at least, by the specialized instruction. Such an evaluation is not the carefully controlled refined critique of the laboratory scientist; it does, however, meet the practical need of an evaluation of functional efficiency of the experimental course in the improvement of reading at the college level.

When all such remedial courses offered during the academic year of

1944-45 were analyzed according to these measures, it was found that the average change in scholarship index for those students *who had received remedial instruction* was a *gain* of 12.5 points; the average change for those who had been so recommended but not enrolled, was a *loss* of 3.5 points; for the entire freshman class of which they were a part, the average change was a *loss* of 1.5 points. The study of this scholarship change is being conducted throughout the college careers of the students in these groups. However, to some extent the equated control groups are being absorbed into new "experimental" groups, as more and more of the students earlier recommended now enter remedial classes. It is probable that by the end of the current year (1945-46) the "control" groups will no longer exist.

With the continued study of the once "experimental course," a meeting was held with the Heads of all departments of the College, the Dean of Instruction, and the Registrar, to confer concerning the method of registration to be followed with the "Reading Improvement Course." It was the unanimous agreement of the conference, that in the light of the evidence of the value of the course to further student scholarship in college, all students recommended for such remedial instruction should be required to enroll immediately in the reading improvement course, *regardless of conflicts with other proposed courses*. It was the stated viewpoint that content classes could expect to do little with these students until their reading needs were met, and hence the remedial reading class should take priority in the programs of such students.

During the winter term of the current academic year (1945-46), the remedial class was enlarged to an enrollment of forty-six, with the intention that two sections be formed, one to meet when the first had been dismissed as no longer in need of special instruction. Since the original organization of the course, the maximum time required by any student to achieve a satisfactory degree of read-

ing achievement has been five weeks. Because this was also the first term in which schedule priority was practiced, it was thought that student rapport might be at a higher level if all were permitted to remain in the class and begin an improvement program at once. The full enrollment was carried for the first four weeks, at the end of which all were eligible for dismissal. With the spring term, an enrollment of forty-seven was registered, and during this term the group was divided into twenty-five for the first section, and a proposed twenty-two who are to enter when dismissals from the first group make new entrants possible.

While the course is still a required one for those who need it, many upperclassmen who entered before the reading program was inaugurated are requesting permission to enroll voluntarily, because they feel it to be an aid to self-improvement.

LABORATORY SCHOOL SERVICES

The services of the Reading Clinic to the Laboratory School can be summarized under six major headings: (1) supervision of school achievement and intelligence testing program; (2) school vision testing; (3) advisory and counselling teacher conferences, (4) individual clinical diagnoses of visual, academic, or psychological problems on request; (5) ocular and psycho-therapy, and remedial reading instruction; and (6) research in methods and materials of instruction. This integration of services is facilitated by the fact that the reading, vision, and psychological clinics are under the direction of the same supervisor which makes it possible to organize and co-ordinate activities for maximal benefit.

The school testing program includes semi-annual achievement testing in grades two through twelve, and group intelligence testing in grades one, four, seven, and ten. The Clinics give assistance in the selection of appropriate tests, the summary and report of test results, and the interpretation of results in terms of recommended school services which the Clinics

are prepared to offer. Some of these services are provision for group needs, recommendations for specific equipment, and instructional needs.

The sight conservation program of the Clinics includes a full non-medical vision testing survey service, in which all children from kindergarten through the twelfth grade are given tests of visual acuity and efficiency, as well as muscle balance and ocular fusion. Children whose annual tests indicate a need are referred for medical examination as the first step in a sight conservation program. Following ocular check-ups and correction, group instruction for the visually handicapped is provided, wherein pupils learn elementals of good lighting and eye-hygiene, and are taught desirable study habits. Special non-medical exercises designed to improve fusion and correct imbalance are also included as part of this group therapy.

To supplement the group instruction, individual remedial instruction in the skill subjects is provided for those children who are visually defective and whose achievement is below mental capacity as indicated by a clinical intelligence test. This specialized instruction also assumes responsibility for the development and preparation of materials of instruction suitable in size and face of type so that the partially-seeing child can use them successfully.

Teacher conferences are of three kinds: (1) individual, (2) committee, or (3) full staff. Teachers confer with the clinic supervisor regarding individual children in their classrooms, both before and after examination and therapy is begun, and also, upon occasion, concerning children not currently participating in the Clinics program. Committee meetings of teachers are usually scheduled to provide opportunity for a mutual exchange of ideas on the Clinic-Laboratory services, as well as to initiate and report specific research which concerns a group of teachers within a specific grade level. Full staff meetings are held when some all-school service, as the annual testing program, needs to be discussed, interp-

reted, and revised. Laboratory teachers observe the work carried on in the Clinics, and the clinic supervisor observes classroom activities so that each can better understand the complete needs and behavior patterns of the children with whom work is being done.

Children who are receiving therapy are staffed in case-conferences to which are invited the Laboratory School principal, the supervisor (elementary or secondary) most directly concerned with the individual, and previous and present classroom teachers. Here cases are reviewed from the time of original contact with the child, and information from the classroom, supervisors, administrators, and Clinics are pooled. Problems of concern to the classroom teachers as well as to the Clinics are discussed, and recommendations for further educational planning are received from all present.

Special diagnostic case-studies of individual children are made upon teacher request. These include tests and evaluations of vision, mental ability, academic achievement, personality development, emotional maturity, and general social adjustment. Full reports of test results and interpretive analyses are furnished to principal and teachers upon the completion of the study, and recommendations for educational and vocational planning are offered.

Research into materials and methods of teaching are necessarily experimental, and are also necessarily co-operative, since the setting up of individual and group controls requires interruption of regular classroom procedures to varying degrees. Without a firm basis of mutual interest and genuine co-operation, true research — and true clinical functions — would be well-nigh impossible.

SPECIFIC TEACHER-TRAINING FUNCTIONS

Most obvious of all teacher-education functions of the Reading Clinic are the specific training programs to which it contributes through curricular offerings of the college. The super-

visor of the Reading Clinic is responsible for teaching: (1) background and theory courses, which include diagnosis and instruction in remedial reading, mental testing, and sight conservation; (2) clinical methods courses; (3) group and individual therapy, with problems arising from educational retardation, physical or mental handicaps, and emotional and social causes; and (4) administration of specific remedial instructional programs. She is also in charge of the practice teaching in special classes and with individual children, and supervises all clinical work carried on by student clinicians.

Through these curricular offerings, the Reading Clinic contributes to the required training program of prospective elementary and secondary teachers, school administrators, speech and hearing therapists, and special class and/or subject teachers, supervisors, and administrators. Most of the above mentioned course offerings are required on the various licenses in the State of Indiana.

Teachers-in-training as well as in-service have need for community participation and integration of functions with other agencies. Such service is provided by out-patient activities. One day each week is devoted to such work, when problems of educational guidance, vision malfunction, mental ability, emotional maladjustment, or vocational counselling are referred from off-campus, both from the immediate and more remote geographical areas. The supervisor of the Reading Clinic takes charge of such problem cases as those above, while she acts as psychological and educational consultant in cases where the major problems are handicaps of speech and hearing.

Out-patient service consists of an initial request for the service from someone interested in the handicapped individual. This may be a school administrator or teacher, a parent or other close relative, or, in cases of an adult, the person himself.

When the appointment has been scheduled, case record forms are sent to be completed prior to the appoint-

ment time, and serve to give needed background information in preliminary planning. Full case history interviews are held with parents, and informational interviews with the patient himself, if an adolescent or adult, and always if the major problem is one of emotional imbalance. A full battery of mental, emotional, and educational tests are given, in addition to tests of speech, hearing, and vision, to supplement the subjective case history and interview information.

After testing is completed, all outpatients are staffed, and recommendations are made. A written report is prepared for the person who originally requested the service, and for such other persons as that person may request. Post-appointment counsel is offered to parents and teachers who wish further assistance in the implementation of the indicated recommendations.

The preparation of teachers of necessity includes training in the application of the scientific method. The Reading Clinic assumes its part of this responsibility by providing training and practice in the use and interpretation of research; in the scientific method of approach to classroom problems by an examination of a problem, the establishment of a hypothesis, the testing of the hypotheses, and the interpretation of conclusions. In addition, the Clinic stimulates needed research in providing opportunity and encouragement for experiment in developing and evaluating methods and materials of instruction.

The Reading Clinic in teacher education must face the duties of self-improvement of teachers-in-training, the provision of services for other training divisions, and the specific teaching of curricular offerings designed to prepare clinicians, as well as to help acquaint the future classroom teacher with clinic facilities and how to use them. When this three-fold responsibility is well co-ordinated, it can be channelled to a significant contribution to a teacher education program.

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These areas are called, for example, Biological Science, Human Development, Literature, Speech, and Writing, Physical Science, and General Arts. The various courses in these areas give a broad overview of closely related fields of knowledge to develop basic understandings and stimulate an intelligent and continuing interest in the field. The work is not introductory to more specialized work but each core course in an area tends to be reasonably complete in itself. In all nine areas there is a core course which gives a broad overview, plus a number of supporting courses, each of which delves more deeply into one aspect of the main area. Each student electing an area must, at the completion of a minimum number of credits, including the core course, satisfactorily pass a comprehensive examination which covers the entire area. This requirement was made in the effort to insure broadness of preparation and a grasp of significant relationships.

It seems to the writer that there are several implications of this kind of a program for teacher training. In the first place, courses organized in the manner indicated give students a grasp of the essential unity within a field of knowledge. Education has become so specialized that courses on the college level are frequently highly fragmentary and fail to give any unified concept of learning.

Secondly, such a program gives a student an understanding of relationships among various fields of knowledge. When one takes specialized work, he frequently tends to compartmentalize his knowledge so that he fails to see the underlying relationships between one field and others.

In the third place, such a program necessarily gives breadth of training. This breadth of training, as pointed out at the beginning of this article, is especially desirable for teachers who are going to be entrusted with the education of youth.

In the fourth place, a counseling

program, which is correlated closely with the instructional program, emphasizes the individual aspects of education. Even though classes may be large, the individual is not lost sight of, since a scientific and effective counseling program provides opportunity for educational and vocational planning in terms of individual needs and interests.

And finally, the type of teaching which is necessary to make courses of the sort described effective, is, and has to be, good teaching. As we all know, teachers tend to use the same organizational principles and teaching methods which have been used in their own training. Therefore, it is no little contribution to the preparation of the prospective teacher to be enrolled in classes taught by master teachers who have an excellent command of the techniques of their profession.

Hughes . . .

(Continued from page 102)

institutions are dedicated to the achievement of a common goal—the best possible trained teachers in the elementary and secondary schools, and since the best thinking in the field points unmistakably to the superiority of area organization in teacher training programs, something should be done to alleviate the handicap caused by a range of difference in state teaching requirements.

It is, of course, impossible for a teacher training institution to work closely with forty-eight state departments in planning a program to satisfy forty-eight sets of standards. It is practical and mutually beneficial, however, for any university to work very closely with its local state department of education in developing teacher training programs. If each state department of education made careful and thorough investigations of teacher training practices in institutions within its borders, standards demanded could be much higher than at present. Now judgment is limited to credits and courses with no oppor-

tunity for insight into the content of the courses, into the comprehensions or understandings which have resulted, or into the competencies which have been built. For practical reasons, any state department would need to limit its close personal co-operation to teacher training institutions within the state. However, there need be no limit to the use of the results of such activity. If each state department of education conducted this type of close work with its own teacher training institution, then a mutual exchange among the states would offer a solution to the problem of variation in teaching requirements. By putting a stamp of approval only on those programs which have been thoroughly investigated and are unquestionably programs which will lead the prospective teacher to develop those broad understandings and skills which are the attributes of the successful teacher and educated citizen, a state department of education could be of great service to any other state department of education interested in judging the merit of a plan and in determining whether it meets their teaching standards. By effecting an exchange among the states for this type of approval of a total program based on careful investigation, teaching standards could be raised in every state.

In my opinion, everything points to the belief that the area programs in universities will supersede the traditional course credit type of program. Whether this be true or not, teacher education should be one of the first and not the last to take advantage of these developments. By removing the handicap presented by variation in state teaching requirements, teacher training institutions would be greatly stimulated to improve their programs. State departments of education can do a great deal to encourage universities to improve their teacher education programs.

Graduate Study and Workshops in Teacher Education will be featured in the July JOURNAL.

Grinnell . . .

(Continued from page 103)

seriousness as students. They wanted to find their niche if they did not know it already, or they wanted to make hay toward the degree at which they were aiming, or they wanted to satisfy intellectual or esthetic cravings.

War hadn't been a lark. Long serious thoughts at night under the open sky or by day with Death too near and too real, had flushed out of them all adolescence. Time is of the essence to these lads. They know that some good may have come out of the long years in service, but in the main they see only that preparation for the competitions of vocation has been long postponed. They are not looking forward as the new high school graduate is to a slow, not-too-vigorous growing up in college. In a hurry to get the education they need or want they are resolved to pitch into the work and stick to it till they are through — with little time out for vacations.

Though they are ambitious and serious-minded they are not without disillusionments and frustrations. They feel the need of something solid to stand on. In higher education they hope to find foundations and in the associations of the college or university campus they hope to restore their faiths. They who have seen the world burning want to see people build again. They who have suffered the inhumanities of war want to find the strength and dignity of peace. The best way out seems to them to be in education. Here at B.A.U. they have not been afraid to think. They have packed auditoriums and classrooms to hear panel discussions, forums, lectures, on all manner of personal and world problems. Nor have they sat back stolidly when discussion was opened. Their ardor has heartened professors to go back and work harder for progress.

Campus social pressures back in the U.S. may exert a drag on their will to learn. I hope not. They will

begin not below but above the average of the student body in this respect. At first the most frequent lament from their midst will be "I've forgotten how to study" or "I can't get the swing of it." B.A.U. taught hundreds of them that they could get the swing of it and find joy in the self-discipline. The personal testimony of dozens of men from two to five or more years out of school was that they were enjoying the work after rather heavy going for several weeks. Some were finding real joy in learning how to express a complicated idea in writing or in speech in the classroom. A few floundered and gave up. That will happen back home. Not all who offer themselves will be able. It is my conviction, however, that fewer of them will fail than of the mill run of college entrants fresh out of high school. There is a difference in purpose and there is a difference in maturity. If the beach nymphs and the allurements of sea, green rolling hills, and an enchanting city could not make them forget their studies too much, it is not likely they will prove ne'er-do-wells when they go to the college of their choice at home.

What is likely to be the effect of the veterans on the students and the college mores at home? By the time this is published the answer will be known — in part. The cartoon G.I. is familiar as an uncouth lowbrow whose profanity knows no limits and recognizes no inhibitions. He has been pictured as a drunken oaf staggering from one clip joint to another, behaving as if all women were prostitutes and all foreigners beggars. In every army and in every civilian community there are such men. Not many of them will enter the colleges. The few who do will be looked upon by their fellow veterans with hardly the tolerance they enjoyed abroad and will swiftly be brought to more social and constructive points of view.

In the main the veterans, men and women, will be the leaders on the campus — and the campus will suddenly grow up. The veterans will be glad to be back among American college girls again and will soon regain

most of their faith in womanhood. Of course that rests with the women. I think the men will not be disappointed. Those who do not have wives or pledged sweethearts will want to find them. They will seek, not as they looked for sex mates overseas, but as all normal men in all ages look for women who will be good companions, wives, and mothers of their children.

It has been suggested the veteran will be searching for antidotes to the bitter years of war. He will feed this deep want with books, eager argument with professors and friends; he will find comfort in the selfless beauty of some of the instructors, some of the girls, and in his own home folk. Those who love him most will see best his need for roots, deep tap roots down into the most life-rewarding qualities and realities, and they will not be diffident about helping him to see that the good things are there in people and institutions as they have always been.

Klotsche . . .

(Continued from page 100)

broad areas of human understanding. A reorganization of the college along divisional rather than departmental lines so that members of the staff will be sensitive to the interest that lie beyond their own field has considerable merit.

With this issue the JOURNAL introduces a special section devoted to children's reading on the elementary and secondary level. Each month it will feature in review textbooks and literature for young readers from preschool through adolescence.

Beginning with the next issue, AROUND THE READING TABLE will also include recreational as well as professional books. It is hoped that in this way the JOURNAL may serve as a guide for teachers to select appropriate content and leisure reading for their pupils as well as for themselves.

Around the Reading Table

(Unsigned reviews are by the acting editor)

PROFESSIONAL READING

Community Surveys by Rural High Schools. By Agricultural Experiment Station, University of Wisconsin, Madison. Department of Public Instruction, State of Wisconsin. 1941. Pp. 34.

This special bulletin contains the results of the experiences of several rural high schools in Wisconsin during the year 1938-40 when they undertook general social surveys of their communities with the help of Miss Zetta Bankert, Assistant, Department of Rural Sociology, University of Wisconsin. The work was done in response to a growing recognition that high school social studies should use life situations to support their theoretical class work.

The bulletin presents recommendations and data pertaining to the following problems encountered in making community surveys:

Part I, getting started; Part II, Discovering the Community; Part III, Preparing for the Community Survey; Part IV, Gathering information about the Community; Part V, Analyzing the materials by use of the tally card; Part VI, Making the findings of the survey available.

The appendices contain a basic schedule with instructions for editing and coding the data; also a bibliography of aids in making community social studies. Numerous charts and tables add interest to the bulletin.

Community Surveys by Rural Schools is an excellent guide to anyone undertaking community surveys as a part of the social studies curriculum. It presents valuable information in a form that is concise and usable.

NELLE McCALLA

Instructor in Library Science
Indiana State Teachers College

Living and Learning in a Rural School. By Genevieve Bowen. New

York: The Macmillan Co., 1944.
Pp. 324+x \$5.00.

This well-written book with its appropriate title is a valuable contribution to the literature in the field of rural education, a subject of deservedly increasing interest and importance.

The author, who is Curriculum Director of County Schools, Bucks County, Pennsylvania, is by virtue of her office obviously well-qualified; in addition she has literary skill which enables her to write interestingly and convincingly. Her fluent narrative style holds the attention of the reader and is well-adapted to relating the experiences of a clear-thinking conscientious young teacher — a composite of many — who sees the importance of co-operation between the school and home and community, and is eminently successful in bringing it about. This she accomplishes by sincere personal interest in the children and their families, and by painstaking but unaffected effort to win understanding and approval. As there is little opportunity for recreation in the community, she contrives to make the school the center of activities, thus giving the children as well as those already out of school their much-needed wholesome social experience. In the curriculum she inaugurates many changes, departing from the old "subject-matter set-out-to-be-learned" type in favor of a more informal, flexible and refreshingly vitalized curriculum, yet without sacrificing basic traditional elements. Individual records of the pupils' progress are kept as tangible evidence of the improvement in work and behavior, as well as a means of guidance to the teacher.

An interesting and enlightening discussion of curriculum workshop and a so-called three-group plan,

with outlined units of work, are presented. These, together with the appended list of references and those scattered throughout the book itself, should make it of untold practical value as well as a stimulating and challenging inspiration to elementary teachers and to students in teachers colleges.

MARIE R. ORTON
Order Librarian

Indiana State Teachers College

Rural Michigan: A Work Book for Discussion, Planning, Action. Department of Public Instruction. Lansing: 1945. Pp. 52.

This is a practical work-book, presenting the most recent information available on all phases of rural living in Michigan. Following the Conference on Education for Rural Living at Grand Rapids, there was a request for a handbook to be used by the committees and regional leaders as they attempted to organize local, county and community conferences for the study of rural living problems. As a result, *Rural Michigan* was made available to Michigan citizens through the co-operation of the W. K. Kellogg Foundation.

Each aspect of life in *Rural Michigan* is set forth separately. The following topics are discussed: Rural families, homes and standards of living; rural communities and relations; rural-urban public relations; rural church; rural youth; rural adult education; rural public school education; community score card; libraries in rural Michigan; rural recreation and avocations; rural health and nutrition; rural social welfare; farms, farm income, and land uses; rural marketing and business services; meetings and conferences; a charter of education for rural children.

The treatment is brief, concise, and factual. The work-book is not only of particular value to citizens of Michigan, but may serve as a guide to the study of rural problems in any state.

NELLE McCALLA
Instructor in Library Science
Indiana State Teachers College

Russia and the Battle of Liberation.
By Charles S. Seely. Philadelphia: Dorrance and Company, 1945 (4th edition). Pp. 112 \$1.00.

Commander Seely is a sturdy and unreserved champion of what he calls the social-political-economic-religious system of Russia. He defends it in all its aspects. Like the divine right kings, Russia can do no wrong.

To demonstrate the fact that this can be the attitude of a loyal American, the author points out at some length that he is a member of six military and patriotic organizations, all of which are critical of the Russian system. Or he may have felt a little disturbed over the panegyric nature of the contents of his book and took this course by way of self-defense.

In the process of building up his case for Russia, he deprecates many features of the social-political-economic-religious system of his own country. According to him foreigners discuss the various political philosophies more freely than we do, hence they "are better able than Americans are to detect and guard against the dangers" in them. Then, by way of exemplification, he swallows whole a "political philosophy" not long ago totally alien to the American way of life. "We are proud of the fact that we are ignorant of foreign affairs," he says, when it is conceded on all sides that our radio and press are among the freest in the world. We are "ten to fifteen years behind Europe in social legislation." This may be one way of saying that we still cling to certain remnants of traditional Democracy.

In Russia, the Commander concedes, "There was a definite lack of our particular brand of freedom." To him the Russian brand is preferable. Preferable because in America we can denounce "our government, our President, our courts . . ." and still stay clear of the police. He lists other "unsavory" freedoms we enjoy—"to exploit our poor," "amass great riches by the sweat of our neighbor's brow—not ours," prevent children from getting an education, "denounce and boycott" liberal movements and news-

papers and go on relief. Some of these are not bad in the American sense and some are. Nowhere does the author list the many desirable freedoms which we enjoy.

Over against our undesirable freedoms the author lists Russian freedoms, among them freedom from worry, from a dependent old age, from losing jobs, from crop failures, strikes, factory shutdowns, doctor's bills, store bills, interest on the mortgage, education of the children and finally "They are even free from all worry and fear of everlasting torment in hell, because the Bolsheviks have abolished that future place . . ." One might wonder what the ordinary Russian lives for, what he has on his mind.

By setting up the State as a god, the Russian people "have been neglecting both religion and alcohol." The people are bought and paid for by the state. Everything is owned by the state except private homes, everybody is fingerprinted, a laborer, on quitting his job, is followed by the police, "no philanthropy, no private relief of any kind," no need for private savings and no conservatives (whom Seely brands as unpatriotic and dangerous). Naturally all this overall paternalistic regimentation requires conformity and compulsion.

—FRED E. BRENGLE
Professor of History

Indiana State Teachers College

The Road to Community Reorganization—A Consultants Report. New York: The Woman's Foundation, 1945.

The little pamphlet, "Reorganization of Community Services," issued from the Office of The Woman's Foundation is only thirty pages in length, but each page is packed with findings that merit close study and thought on the part of all who are interested in this reconstruction period which confronts us. State and local officials, public and private agencies and particularly the average American should have an opportunity to study these findings.

The committee appointed by the

Board of Trustees of the Woman's Foundation is made up of twenty-seven men and women prominent in the fields of Education, Health, Welfare and Recreation, besides other broad interests. The pamphlet just issued shows their careful and comprehensive study.

Development and co-ordination within the communities, local, county, state and national is stressed throughout with a summary of pertinent recommendations.

The problem is carefully analyzed from every angle. The Committee points out the recent shifts in population from rural to urban in recent years which has been intensified in four years of war.

Returning veterans and their families and dislocated war workers require services and assistance which most communities are not prepared to give although only through the community can the framework be furnished through which the family, particularly children, develop in a healthy atmosphere.

More effective organization and administration of community, state and federal services in Education, Health, Recreation and Welfare are immediately required.

This study urges the organization of co-ordinating bodies of citizens to study, analyze, strengthen and extend all community services affecting the lives of the citizens. It emphasizes the recruiting and selection of both volunteer and professional personnel for all community services, both public and private, with improved financing to insure efficient leadership and effective service.

Although no attempt is made to recommend in detail how such services should be organized or the cost thereof in a given community, the study does insist upon the need for a complete network of public and private services of high quality without serious duplication or omissions. "The quantity as well as the quality of services in the final analysis will be determined by the citizens of a community. It is their responsibility."

The study recommends for the

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states the organization of a state council to co-ordinate and when feasible integrate the functions of Education, Health, Recreation and Welfare, with close co-operation with local communities in providing leadership, building adequate standards of service and furnishing financial aid. The state itself is urged to clarify its own role in relation to local and federal government.

For the federal government the study urges the establishment of an inclusive federal department of Education, Health, Recreation, Welfare and Social Insurance, headed by a Secretary with cabinet rank, and three assistant secretaries of Education, Health and Welfare, all to be appointed by the President and confirmed by the Senate.

This department would have the responsibility for program planning in all these fields in co-operation with national, state and local agencies, both public and private, for establishing standards, and for furnishing consultative services, to states and localities (through the states) and for research.

It is the stated purpose of the committee to give wide distribution to this report and to present it immediately to the President of the United States and to other high officials of the government.

It is to be hoped that there is a wide distribution of this pamphlet, particularly to individuals. Whether or not one agrees with all the recommendations, this concise, comprehensive study is a notable contribution for anyone who is interested in the problems confronting us now.

—(MRS.) GLENN PATTEN CRAWFORD
Executive Director, Y.W.C.A.
Terre Haute, Indiana

Concerning Words. Revised by J. E. Norwood. New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1945. Pp. 89+vi.

This manual and work book is a revision of the original 1938 text. The exercises have been rewritten, but the brief expository sections have been little changed. The purpose of the

book is to increase the student's vocabulary and to give him a more accurate knowledge of the meaning of words. Thus his reading ability ought to be greatly increased.

The manual integrates individual exercises with theory so that the student has an opportunity to apply what he learns as he learns it. The book consists of five sections, Making Friends with the Dictionary, Word Building — Prefixes and Suffixes, The Group Method of Learning Words, Etymology, Contrasts in Words, and of twenty-four exercises.

The theory, as is desirable in such a manual, is reduced to a minimum; and the exercises comprise the main part of the book. Students are taught to break words into suffix, prefix, and root; thus they have a more intelligent understanding of words and a better means of approach to the new words which they find in their reading. In the exercises the words are given in context as far as possible. When the student must select one particular contextual meaning from several possible ones, he focuses his attention rather than scatters it.

The words for study are such as make up the vocabulary of every ordinary well-informed person who reads newspapers, magazines, and books intelligently and who has ideas about the world he lives in. The sentences used in the exercises are fresh and interesting. The exercises themselves are varied in form and technique. Some are exercises in word structure; some require that appropriate words be used to fill blanks in sentences; some require the writing of original sentences; some require the use of synonyms; some involve a comprehension of the fine shades of meaning which exist between synonyms. In other words, the student approaches the word and its meaning in every conceivable way.

Exercise I is particularly good and furnishes an excellent introduction to the book. It is based on Thorndike's list of the 10,000 words which occur most frequently. Its purpose is to help the student measure the range of his own vocabulary. The exercise gives

111 phrases, in each of which one word is underlined; from a group of five words given opposite each phrase, the student is to select the word closest in meaning to the underlined word. If he gets all 111 words right, he probably has a vocabulary of 10,000 words; if he gets only 12 right, he probably has a vocabulary of 3,000 words.

Concerning Words is stimulating and very usable. It would be an excellent text to use in a college reading class, or it could be used to advantage in supplementing other texts used in Freshman English.

— SARAH KING HARVEY
Professor of English
Indiana State Teachers College

Conference of Graduate Deans and Librarians, Nashville, Tennessee. Development of Library Resources and Graduate Work in the Co-operative University Centers of the South; proceedings of a conference held at the Joint University Libraries, Nashville, Tenn., July 12-14, 1944; ed. by Philip G. Davidson and A. F. Kuhlman. Nashville, *Joint Universities Libraries*, 1944. Pp. 81.

Again the South has pointed the way, this time in regional library planning and co-operation as a step in the improvement of research and graduate work. Such was the purpose of the Conference of Graduate Deans and Librarians held in Nashville in the summer of 1944.

This conference came about as a result of a study made in 1934 by the American Council on Education of the facilities for graduate work in America, which revealed that in the entire South there was not a single university of first rank.

Again and again educational foundations have recognized the role of the library as an agency for use in strengthening the facilities of higher education. Consequently the attention of this conference was largely devoted to a study of proper and reasonable goals for libraries, to their adequate financial support, and to the question of expensive and wasteful duplication. This, of course, led directly to a

consideration of the relation of university libraries with various co-operative agencies such as state, historical, public, and special libraries.

The volume contains committee reports and statistical tables covering these fields, as well as a useful selected bibliography. Here is assembled a great deal of reliable information not only about libraries of the South but about good library practice in general and the possibilities of co-operation elsewhere on a graduate level. The book is of particular significance to educational administrators, librarians, and faculty members who are interested in these problems; but there is also meat for those concerned with the improvement of instruction.

HAZEL E. ARMSTRONG
Librarian

Indiana State Teachers College

Forecasts in FM Television, by E. K. Jett, et. al., New York, The Columbia Broadcasting System.

Radio's Daytime Serial, New York, The Columbia Broadcasting System, 27 pp.

The Transition from AM to FM Broadcasting, by P. W. Kesten and Frank Stanton, New York, The Columbia Broadcasting System, 44 pp.

The thirty million radio families of America who hear over a hundred million dollars worth of program service a year, are on the threshold of a revolutionary change in the physical plant which delivers that program. That change is from AM (Amplitude Modulation) to FM (Frequency Modulation). Mr. Frank Stanton, Vice-President and General Manager of CBS, and Mr. P. W. Kesten, Executive Vice-President of CBS, last July placed the case for FM before the Federal Communications Commission for its consideration. *The Transition from AM to FM Broadcasting* is a reprint of the pleas made by these men before the Commission.

Mr. Kesten begins with the premise, which he believes needs no substantiation, that FM will replace AM, and natural transition period. Identical Programming, in Mr. Kesten's be-

lief, is the measure which will insure that orderly and natural transition period. (Identical programming is a system which permits the broadcast of the same program on both the AM and FM facilities of the broadcaster.) Mr. Kesten's argument is essentially an economic one. These five advantages he lists for identical programming. They are: (1) Stimulate FM set ownership; (2) Encourage new broadcasters; (3) Save the listener's money; (4) Avoid confusion of listeners; (5) Maintain program standards. (pp. 15-19).

Mr. Stanton argues for a FM licensing policy which will permit the greatest number of FM stations in the United States consistent with the best possible geographical coverage. Mr. Stanton favors the Single Market Plan of license allocation. This plan is based on the simple and undisputable fact that, generally speaking, radio needs its strongest signal at the point of densest population, in the congested, built-up urban areas.

Both pleas are presented in an unemotional style. The problems are faced realistically, the answers offered seem practicable.

Forecasts in FM and Television offer the words of four authorities on the future of these interesting developments. They are the words of two members of the Federal Communications Commission, and two members of the CBS technical staff. The forecasts are realistic and honest. The advent of FM and television on a vast scale will be a matter of but several years. The speed of that advent will be in direct relationship to the industry's ability to create a consumer demand for these services. Experiments in both fields indicate that present day technical problems of transmission will be overcome.

Radio's Daytime Serial is the work of Dr. Paul Lazarsfeld, Director of the Office of Radio Research, Columbia University, Dr. Carl Rogers, Director of Clinical Psychology, Ohio State University, and Dr. Raymond Franzen, Psychologist and Consultant on Statistical Research. Their

findings, as reported, answer many questions concerning radio serial appetites.

Of all the women at home during the daytime it was found that 54 per cent listen to daytime serials, 46 per cent do not. Women do not listen to serials because there is nothing else to listen to. Even if other program offerings are available the serial is still preferred. Women like the radio serial because they feel it is true to life and from it they get a lesson in living.

The committee closes the study with these suggestions for improving the serial: (1) make the characters motivate the plot. (2) Develop the social and economic situations of the character more fully. (3) Play on wider themes. (4) Let motives be plausible. (5) Use more logic, less contrived accident and coincidence in the story. (6) Use less narration, more live action. (7) Set higher production standards. (8) Be sure the total outlook of each serial is socially desirable rather than socially harmless.

— KENNETH CHRISTIANSEN
Assistant Professor of Speech
Indiana State Teachers College

Streamlined English Lessons, by Frank Laubach, New York: King's Crown Press, 1945. Pp. 102.

A series of eighteen English lessons with illustrations has been put into a manual form. The lessons are planned for English speaking illiterate adults and for educated foreigners learning to speak and read English. The accompanying teachers' manual outlines different procedures in teaching these two groups.

Each of the eighteen lessons teaches one vowel sound showing the "regular" or most common spelling for that sound. In all 791 words have been introduced, 595 of which are in the first 1000 of the Thorndike-Lorge list or in the Basic list of 850 words.

In each lesson the vocabulary is presented in its phonetic form through the words themselves, in sentences and by sketched illustrations. The basis of vocabulary selection and the

general plan of presentation is better than the material in which it is presented. The sentence material is stilted and sometimes ridiculous in mean-

ing. The pictorial illustrations are not always clear. — FLORENCE M. OLSEN

Supervisor of Hearing Therapy
Indiana State Teachers College

JUVENILE READING

(With this issue the JOURNAL introduces a new section devoted to evaluative reviews of classroom textbooks and children's literature)

My First Number Book. By John T. Clark, Arthur S. Otis and Caroline Hatton Clark. Yonkers-on-Hudson, New York: The World Book Company, 1945. Pp. 80.

My First Number Book is called by the authors, "a preprimer of number." This preprimer introduces the young child into a "continuity of activity and experience without which the learning of basic number concepts cannot be economical and effective." It is planned to fit into and to supplement the child's daily number experiences. To do this, the authors have used a "variety of sensory experiences." Many of these experiences come through the handling of objects with which children are familiar. Through these the children learn by doing. The many outline illustrations also aid in interpreting the meanings being taught. Most of the illustrations are clear and large enough for young children's use. There are, however, a few pages that contain so many illustrations that some children might be confused.

The book is designed to attain the following objectives:

- (1) To know the sequence of numbers from 1 to 10.
- (2) To read and write the numbers from 1 to 10.
- (3) To recognize the elementary composition and relationship of numbers from 1 to 10; for example, that a group of 5 is composed of groups of 3 and 2 or groups of 4 and 1.
- (4) To count objects (to 10) and write the number.
- (5) To number objects serially.
- (6) To use understandingly a simple vocabulary of number relations, such as big, little, more, short, long, take away, count, number, etc.
- (7) To recognize the processes of addition and subtraction in simple concrete situations and to dis-

cover the answer with the help of pictures or objects.

— MARY HELEN PRICE
Associate Professor of
Elementary Education

Indiana State Teachers College

The Little Fireman. By Margaret Wise Brown. Pictures by Esphyr Slobodkina. New York: William R. Scott, Inc., 1937. Unpaged. \$1.25.

The story of the big-little firemen and their day's adventure with big-little fires is told by Margaret Brown for pre-school listeners. The repetition of description and actions of the big fireman and the little fireman are of the essence of good story-telling — or story-reading — for the very young tots. Pictures are in vivid splashes of gay primary colors, and large clear print is easily an advantage for young eyes which tire easily.

Keep Singing. Keep Humming. By Margaret Bradford and Barbara Woodruff. Illustrated by Lucienne Bloch. New York: William R. Scott, Inc., 1946. Pp. 66. \$2.00.

This is an unusual collection of children's songs, by and for children. They represent experiences for youngsters from four to seven years, and feature accompaniments created by children in their dramatic play. Margaret Bradford explains in her preface that "Story Songs are not necessarily 'sit down and sing' songs"; but rather songs of free play. Accompaniments have been kept within technical limits of very inexperienced piano players, and the design feature of illustrations of each song are appealing as well as integrative.

Let's Find Out. By Herman and Nina Schneider. Pictures by Jeanne Bendick. New York: William R. Scott, Inc., 1946. Pp. 39. \$1.25.

How do you find out things you want to know? This is a try-it-yourself book, a first science book, for six-to-nine year olds. The book is set in sight-ease type which makes it soothing for tired or defective eyes. Some of the questions the primary scientist can answer through its pages are: what happens to metal when heated; does heat help water dry out of things; what makes an airplane stay up? This is a made-to-order answer for the eternal "why" of the healthily inquisitive youngster in his early days of curiosity.

Its maturity of interest in content makes it also a real find for the retarded reader whose technical skills are low, but whose interest in the why of the world knows no stopping-point.

Bumble Bugs and Elephants. By M. W. Brown. Pictures by Clement Hurd. New York: William R. Scott, Inc., 1938. Unpaged. \$1.00.

The first of the picture books for the wee little tot to hold and watch while mother "reads me a story." The word pattern never varies for the pairs of words and double page pictures, there is always a great big bird, and a tiny little bird; a great big turtle, and a tiny little turtle; and finally, a great big elephant — and — a little tiny elephant. The sophisticated adult reader will turn a puzzled frown and ask, "What happened?" for there is no action described at all; the simple word pattern embraces only "there was." But the pictures and repetitive phrasing are sufficient for the two and three year olds for whom it is planned.

This Is the Bread That Betsy Ate. By Irma S. Black. Illustrated by Allen Ullman. New York: William R. Scott, Inc., 1945. Unpaged. \$1.25.

Another variant of the House That Jack Built, this rhyming story tells the tale of a loaf of bread all the way back to the farmer who runs the tractor to plant the seed. All primary colors are used, and pictures are large, full-page sets with distinct object drawings, noticeably free of cluttering detail. For the primary child.

— — — Education in the News — — —

Two instances of industry-education co-operation are found in the recent announcement in the September issue of *Trends in Education-Industry Co-operation*. Westinghouse Educational Foundation has established a graduate fellowship in power systems engineering, providing twelve months of training and leading to the degree of Master of Science in Electrical Engineering. Fellows will be selected by a committee representing both Westinghouse and the Illinois Institute of Technology, where the graduate work is to be completed. Only students who hold bachelor's degrees in electrical engineering from accredited engineering schools will be considered as fellowship applicants. Further selection will be on the basis of personal qualifications, interests, and scholarship.

In Milwaukee, Allis-Chalmers Manufacturing Company has inaugurated an "in-plant" program of graduate study, in co-operation with the same Institute, with courses taught by faculty members who commute to Chalmers. These courses are accredited towards a master's degree, and attempt to provide professional and technical education on a graduate school level, which will combine study and research with practical experience. Engineers enrolled in this program continue to build specific abilities while keeping abreast of rapid changes and developments in their respective fields.

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The Schools and College Service of United Air Lines has prepared pamphlets, bulletins, and radio scripts to facilitate aviation education programs. Materials are available for a wide range of grade levels, and are adaptable for science classes, aviation courses, and for occupational and vocational counselling. These source materials are distributed gratis on request to the United Air Lines at 5959 South Cicero Avenue, Chicago, Illinois.

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The National Safety Council calls attention to the need for special care and emphasis in safety education, now that traffic is increasing following the removal of gas restrictions. The Council points out that many school children were too young at the beginning of the war to know or remember peacetime traffic at its peak; many others have forgotten how to protect themselves in thick and fast traffic; rural school children are more than ever unaccustomed to high speed traffic now allowed; and a large number now have reached driving age but have not had opportunity to drive due to wartime restrictions. Further, hazards are present because school buses, like all motor vehicles are in poor conditions; and school bus drivers, like other drivers, are unprepared for the sudden volume and speed of traffic. The Council urges renewed attention to safety education in the classroom; increased use of safety patrols; and home-school community co-operation to reduce accidents.

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The American Magazine Poll of Experts, under the direction of Dr. Arthur Kornhauser of the Bureau of Applied Social Research of Columbia University, reports a recent survey on "Just How Good Are Our Schools?" The "experts" were leading school superintendents, university professors, and government education personnel; they are identified in the published report. The six objectives of education accepted as basic criteria were: (1) preparation for democratic citizenship; (2) preparation for vocational competency; (3) training for personal and family responsibilities; (4) guidance in use of leisure time; (5) promotion of good health and physical fitness; and (6) development of academic skills. The consensus of the experts was that schools were doing a superior job of teaching fundamental academic skills, but were negligent in personal and family training, vocational competency, and training

in the use of leisure time. All were in agreement that more attention to individual needs would improve what they termed "the curse of over-standardization."

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A Citizen's Federal Committee has now been established to provide a lay advisory group to serve the U. S. Office of Education. The members represent such groups as agriculture, business, homemakers, labor, manufacture, negro groups, professions, religious groups, and veterans. The first meeting of the Committee was held during March.

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A recent study by the NEA Research Division reveals that approximately 5 million children of school age are not now in school (in the United States) and still others are enrolled in substandard classrooms. It is estimated that over a billion dollars a year would be required for a ten year period to remove building and construction deficiencies and meet current needs. At the present time two bills have been introduced into Congress calling for funds for educational building. HR 4490, by Neely of West Virginia; and S. 1719 by Morse of Oregon. They propose an appropriation of \$1,545,000,000 for such reconstruction purposes.

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Vocational guidance counselors and teachers of occupational information courses will find much of interest in the February News bulletin of the Indiana Employment Security Division, in which is reported a survey made in co-operation with the U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics. Rates of change in employment for January have been computed over indices for December and January, 1945, respectively and similar comparative figures have been computed for amounts of wages and salaries paid in manufacture and non-manufacture employment. Compared to a year ago, em-

Teachers College Journal

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ployment was up 2.4 per cent, and pay rolls 14.3 per cent. However, numbers of workers as well as amount of earnings declined in relation to the December, 1945, figures.

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Problems in the educational use of industrial and other commercial films have been studied and interpreted by the J. Walter Thompson Company, in its recently released report, "The Educational Motion Picture Field." While recognizing the lack of equipment in the schools and the scarcity of usable films for the extensive and intensive training schools are undertaking in their vocational education programs, it is pointed out that sponsored pictures will be welcome only if they provide film material not otherwise available, and if plant and product information is kept at the minimum for instructional value. The study includes also results of interviews with fifty leading educators, a review of significant related literature from 1920 to the present, and a narrative summary of the use of films in schools, in the services, as well as planned uses for postwar educational programs.

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The week of the first meeting in the United States of the General Assembly of the United Nations has been scheduled for early September, and the same week has been selected by NBC as United Nations week. The 85,000 teacher-members of the NEA will co-ordinate their special activities with those of NBC and affiliates, to stress the broad theme of unity and co-operative understanding.

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A new set of leaflets, the *Speaks Series*, has been prepared by Leonard S. Kenworthy and collaborators, and may be obtained from the editor at Fairmount, Indiana. The series are biographical booklets which include salient excerpts from the writings and speeches of international leaders in religious, political, and humanitarian fields.

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The Second Summer Institute on the United States in World Affairs

May, 1946

will be held in Washington from June 24 through August 2, 1946. Attention will be divided between national and international problems, and will include such current topics as labor-management relations, housing, control of atomic energy, relations among the Big Three powers, international economic relations, and the UNO. Lecturers for the institute will include government officials, university professors, and journalists.

Teachers may arrange to earn six semester hours of graduate credit by enrollment at the Institute, which is sponsored by the American University of Washington. Sessions will be held on the university campus, and provisions will be made there for housing Institute members. Teachers who wish to attend either for graduate credit or as auditors should write for further information to Walter E. Meyer, Director, Institute on the United States in World Affairs, 1733 K Street, N.W., Washington 6, D.C.

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The annual meeting of the American Social Hygiene Association was held in joint session with the Regional Conference on Social Hygiene in New York in early February. The theme of the conference centered on the implications for social hygiene in the postwar trends and featured speakers from both civilian and service medical fields.

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The current *Newsletter* of the committee on Teacher Education of the American Council on Education stresses teacher recruitment, and "action now." According to report, scholarship programs have been increased and made more effective, both on state-wide and private bases. In addition, laymen groups are becoming concerned about need for teachers, and are emphasizing continued encouragement and assistance for the student already in college who should be influenced into completing a good preparation.

The Council reports that there is increasing evidence that the teaching profession and the rest of society are

co-operating to make teacher education more attractive to potential recruits: salaries are increasing, although slowly; teaching positions are acquiring social status comparable to that of other positions open to college graduates; and colleges are renovating their curricula with a re-emphasis on direct experiences with children and first-hand community participation.

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National Boys and Girls Week held its 26th annual observance this year from April 27 to May 4. The program considered for its theme, "Building for Tomorrow with the Youth of Today," and sought to focus attention on problems, interests and recreation of youth.

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Stephens College announces the introduction of a course in Business Psychology, in which skills, attitudes, and work experiences are merged with a view to developing a "personal philosophy," by which a student can measure herself on her first job. The course is taught by a psychologist who has worked with industrial concerns in the field of human engineering. Students must take Office Practice concurrently, or must have had previous work experience commensurate with that offered in the practice course. The course is on an experimental basis and its future status will be dependent on evaluation of the current term.

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The February issue of *Illinois Vocational Progress* includes a challenging account of a revitalized Home Economics curriculum at Southern Illinois Normal University at Carbondale. "Vitalizing the Home Experiences Program," by Gladys W. Babcock, suggests many community service projects which can be undertaken by college students. Students were encouraged to select experiences which would round out their own backgrounds, and at the same time contribute to the solution of an existing home or community problem-situation. Some of their choices include planning and serving of banquets,

creation of novelty furniture and renovation of old pieces, cleaning and polishing silver, service and extermination of household pests. The program is in its fourth year and appears to have had excellent results and enthusiastic support from students and community.

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The National Society for the Prevention of Blindness again calls attention to the shortage of teachers and supervisors of classes for the partially seeing. Three courses meeting requirements for the preparation of such supervisors and teachers will be offered during the coming summer, at Wayne University, Teachers College of Columbia University, and Indiana State Teachers College:

Wayne University, Detroit Michigan. June 24-August 2. Graduate and undergraduate credits. Full particulars may be obtained from Mr. John W. Tenny, General Adviser, Education of Handicapped Children, Wayne University, Detroit 1, Michigan.

Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, N. Y. July 8-August 16. Graduate and undergraduate credits. Full particulars may be obtained from Dr. Charles Wilson, Department of Education of the Exceptional, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York 27, N.Y.

Indiana State Teachers College, Terre Haute, Indiana. June 10-26. A workshop type course, meeting 4 hours daily. For further information write Dr. Bernardine G. Schmidt, Clinic Supervisor of Remedial Reading and Sight Conservation, The Special Education Clinics, Indiana State Teachers College, Terre Haute, Indiana.

A course to acquaint teachers of regular grades with the principles of sight conservation will be offered at the University of Wisconsin, Madison, June 21-August 16. Details may be obtained from the University or from Miss Olive S. Peck, Supervisor, Braille and Sight-Saving Classes, Board of Education, Cleveland, Ohio.

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Fellowships for one year of graduate study in health education, leading to a master's degree in public

health, are being offered to qualified men and women by the U. S. Public Health Service through funds made available by the National Foundation for Infantile Paralysis. The fellowships provide a year's study in public health education in an accredited school of public health. This training includes an academic year of eight or nine months and three months of supervised field experiences in community health education. The courses include: public health administration, epidemiology, public health and school health education, problems in health education, community organization, and information techniques. Fellowships are effective for the academic year starting in the fall of 1946. Men and women between the ages of 22 and 40, who are citizens of the United States and who meet the entrance requirements of the School of Public Health of their choice are eligible for application. In addition to a bachelor's degree from a recognized college or university, courses in the biological and/or physical sciences, sociology, and education may be required. Training in public speaking, journalism and psychology and work experience in a related field are desirable.

Application forms may be obtained from the Surgeon General, U.S. Public Health Service, Washington 25, D.C. Completed forms, accompanied by two recent photographs, and official transcript of college credits, and a 500-word statement of why applicant is interested in entering the field of health education, must be in the hands of the Surgeon General by June 1, 1946. Only complete applications will be considered. Veterans with necessary qualifications are encouraged to apply for fellowships. The subsistence allowance for veterans granted under the G. I. Bill of Rights will be supplemented by fellowship funds to bring the stipend to \$100 a month.

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With increased interest in Workshops, the following bibliography on recent contributions in that field has been compiled by Dr. Chris De

Young, Dean of Faculties, Illinois State Normal University. Dr. De Young's full-length article on Workshops in teacher education will appear in the July *Journal*.

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American Education Week, 1946, will have as its theme, "Education to Promote the General Welfare," and will be observed during the week of November 11-17, beginning on the day commemorating the armistice of the first World War. Begun in 1921, American Education Week this year celebrates its twenty-sixth anniversary, grown from modest beginnings to a great annual celebration of the ideals of free public education.



DR. CLARENCE M. MORGAN
Director of Radio Education

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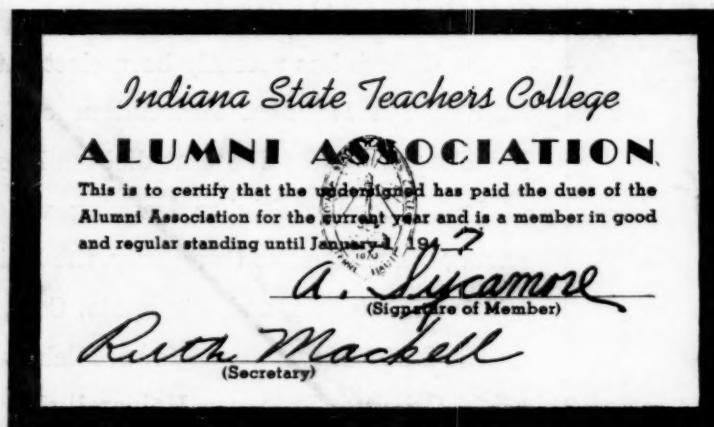
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